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REVIEW ARTICLE

Elsinoe species: The rise of scab diseases

Nam Q. Pham¹ | Brenda D. Wingfield¹ | Irene Barnes¹ | Romina Gazis² | Michael J. Wingfield¹

¹Department of Biochemistry, Genetics and Microbiology, Forestry and Agricultural Biotechnology Institute (FABI), University of Pretoria, Pretoria, South Africa

²Department of Plant Pathology, University of Florida, Tropical Research and Education Center (TREC), Homestead, Florida, USA

Correspondence

Nam Q. Pham, Department of Biochemistry, Genetics and Microbiology, Forestry and Agricultural Biotechnology Institute (FABI), University of Pretoria, Pretoria, South Africa. Email: nam.pham@fabi.up.ac.za

Abstract

The genus *Elsinoe* contains many aggressive pathogens of a wide range of plants, many of which are economically important. These fungal pathogens cause serious scab diseases affecting various plant parts, impacting plant vigour, yield and market value. While studies on *Elsinoe* species have predominantly focused on their taxonomy, there is a conspicuous gap in knowledge of these fungi from a plant pathology perspective. In this review, we draw together and critically evaluate the existing, but rather fragmented, research on the taxonomic status, phylogenetic relationships, host range, as well as the biology and epidemiology of *Elsinoe* species. Our aim is primarily to augment the existing understanding of the global significance of *Elsinoe* species, and furthermore, to shed light on the escalating prominence of scab diseases caused by species in a fungal genus that has been known for over 100 years but remains relatively poorly understood and somewhat enigmatic.

KEYWORDS

emerging diseases, globalization, invasive pathogens, plant pathogens, *Sphaceloma*, spot anthracnose

1 | INTRODUCTION

Species of *Elsinoe* (orthographic variant: *Elsinoë*), residing in the Elsinoaceae, Myriangiales, represent a group of highly aggressive and widely distributed plant pathogens. The genus was first erected at the end of the 19th century (Raciborski, 1900), based on the type species *E. canavaliae*, collected from sword bean (*Canavalia gladiata*) in Java, Indonesia. Fascinatingly, the genus name *Elsinoe* is derived from the name of a delicate Greek heroine, in the play *Iridion* written by the Polish poet and dramatist Zygmunt Krasiński (Saccardo & Sydow, 1902).

Elsinoe species are mostly necrotrophic fungi that infect various economically important agricultural, horticultural and forestry crops including grapevine, citrus, avocado, cassava and roses, to name only a few. Disease symptoms are easily recognizable by the cork-like appearance of infected tissues, commonly referred to as 'scab'. However, on some host plants, when the hyperplasia is less pronounced, the symptoms have been referred to as a form of anthracnose. To avoid confusion in the literature, Jenkins (1947) introduced the alternative term 'spot anthracnose' to differentiate infections caused by *Elsinoe* spp. from those associated with species of *Colletotrichum*.

During the last few decades, an extensive body of research has been published on *Elsinoe* spp. With respect to reviews, these have mainly been focused on taxonomic perspectives. The most recent monograph of the genus by Fan et al. (2017) provided a stable taxonomy with a well-defined species concept that has enabled contemporary plant pathologists to diagnose diseases and identify species in this genus with greater ease. However, from a plant pathology perspective, there is a distinct lack of knowledge

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regarding diseases caused by these fungi, their basic biology, and the underlying mechanisms that make them specialized plant pathogens. The aim of this review is to draw together and critically analyse the existing, but rather fragmented, research on the taxonomic status, phylogenetic relationships, host range as well as the biology and epidemiology of Elsinoe species. In this way, we hope to extend current knowledge regarding the importance of these pathogens, globally. More broadly, we highlight what appears to be a rising importance of scab diseases caused by species in a genus of fungi that has been known for over 100 years, but that remains relatively poorly understood.

2 | TAXONOMY, NOMENCLATURE AND PHYLOGENETIC RELATIONSHIPS

The generic name *Elsinoe* was established more than a century ago by Raciborski (1900) to accommodate species of scab-causing fungi discovered on native host plants in Bogor, Java, Indonesia (formerly Buitenzorg, Java). Raciborski (1900) assigned the binomial names to three species: E. antidesmae (on Antidesma heterophyllum), E. menispermacearum (on Tinospora spp.) and the type species E. canavaliae (as 'canavalliae' on Canavalia gladiata). All three fungi cause scab-like lesions on host tissues with the presence of immersed, multiloculate ascostromata containing multiple bitunicate asci in each locule (Fan et al., 2017; Jenkins & Bitancourt, 1941; Marin-Felix et al., 2019).

Jenkins (1932a, 1932b) proposed the connection between the sexual morph Elsinoe and a previously described asexual acervular coelomycetous genus known as Sphaceloma. This genus was initially established in 1874, based on the description of the type species, Sphaceloma ampelinum, infecting Vitis vinifera in western Europe (de Bary, 1874). Sphaceloma spp. form pseudoparenchymatous acervuli, characterized by polyphialidic conidiophores that produce small ellipsoidal, hyaline and aseptate conidia (Fan et al., 2017; Jenkins & Bitancourt, 1941; Marin-Felix et al., 2019).

The taxonomy of Elsinoe has been the subject of considerable research but also a topic of substantial debate. During the first half of the 1900s, Elsinoe and its asexual state Sphaceloma, following their original introductions, were described independently under multiple names by various authors (Figure 1). These included Manginia (Viala & Pacottet, 1904), Melanobasidium (Maublanc, 1906), Plectodiscella (Woronichin, 1914); transferred to Uleomyces by (Arnaud, 1925), Isotexis (Sydow & Petrak, 1931), Melanobasis (Clements & Shear, 1931); Bitancourtia (Thirumalachar & Jenkins, 1953); Kurasawaia (Hara, 1954); Uleomycina (Petrak, 1954) and Melanophora (von Arx, 1957). After numerous taxonomic treatments regarding their appropriate placement, many generic names were found to be invalid, and were reduced to synonymy with either Elsinoe, or its asexual morph Sphaceloma (Jenkins, 1932a, 1971; Jenkins & Bitancourt, 1941; Sutton, 1977; von Arx, 1963; von Arx & Müller, 1975).

Taxonomic uncertainties for this group of fungi stemmed largely from the fact that species identification, at that time, relied heavily on the signature scab-like symptoms and characteristic morphology of fungal structures formed on the infected plant tissues. One of the challenges was the absence of fertile fruiting structures in field-collected tissues. Although the Sphaceloma morphs are more prevalent in nature, species characterization remains arduous due to their conserved morphology (Fan et al., 2017). Additionally, the establishment of pure cultures is notoriously challenging due to the slow growth of these fungi, being easily outcompeted by fastgrowing contaminant filamentous fungi and yeasts (Fan et al., 2017; Jenkins, 1932a, 1932b; Scheper et al., 2013; Whiteside, 1986).

A general search on Index Fungorum (www.indexfungorum.org; accessed July 2024) resulted in a total of 211 and 164 name records for Elsinoe and Sphaceloma, respectively. It is worth noting that in many past studies, new species have been proposed when infections were found on plants not previously known to be hosts of Elsinoe species. This approach follows the famous quote by the mycologist F. C. Deighton: 'If a sparrow flies to a cherry tree, it is a cherry tree sparrow. If the same sparrow sits on an apple tree, it is an apple tree sparrow'. Furthermore, many species descriptions were solely based on symptoms and host association, and in the absence of fruiting structures or cultures (Bitancourt & Jenkins, 1949, 1950). For this reason, the validity of numerous reports remains uncertain.

Molecular investigations focusing on Elsinoe spp., along with their Sphaceloma asexual morphs, have brought about a profound change in research regarding these fungi. Application of molecular techniques, particularly DNA sequence comparisons, has been instrumental in discerning numerous cryptic species and clarifying the connections between different morphs in their life cycle. Several molecular approaches have been employed that include the use of random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) (Álvarez & Molina, 2000; Hyun et al., 2001, 2009; Mchau et al., 1998; Tan et al., 1996; Wang, Liao, et al., 2009), amplified fragment length polymorphisms (AFLP) (Bagsic et al., 2016) and inter-simple sequence repeat (ISSR) markers (Hou et al., 2014; Qadri et al., 2023). Although some of these techniques have provided valuable insights into the genetic variation of the pathogens, DNA sequence comparisons and associated phylogenetic inference has had the most significant impact on the taxonomy of Elsinoe species.

The use of ribosomal DNA (rDNA) sequences, and in particular the 5.8S rRNA and internal transcribed spacers (ITS), to delineate Elsinoe and Sphaceloma species, commenced in the late 1990s and early 2000s (Figure 1). In 1996, sequence analysis of the ITS region was used to differentiate between different pathotypes of the citrus scab pathogens, E. fawcettii and E. australis (Tan et al., 1996). Swart et al. (2001) produced the first ITS phylogeny that confirmed the connection between the asexual morph Sphaceloma and Elsinoe.

The capacity to link sexual and asexual species and genera based on molecular evidence has profoundly impacted fungal taxonomy and nomenclature (Crous, Hawksworth, et al., 2015; Taylor, 2011; Wingfield et al., 2012). Following the 'One Fungus = One Name'

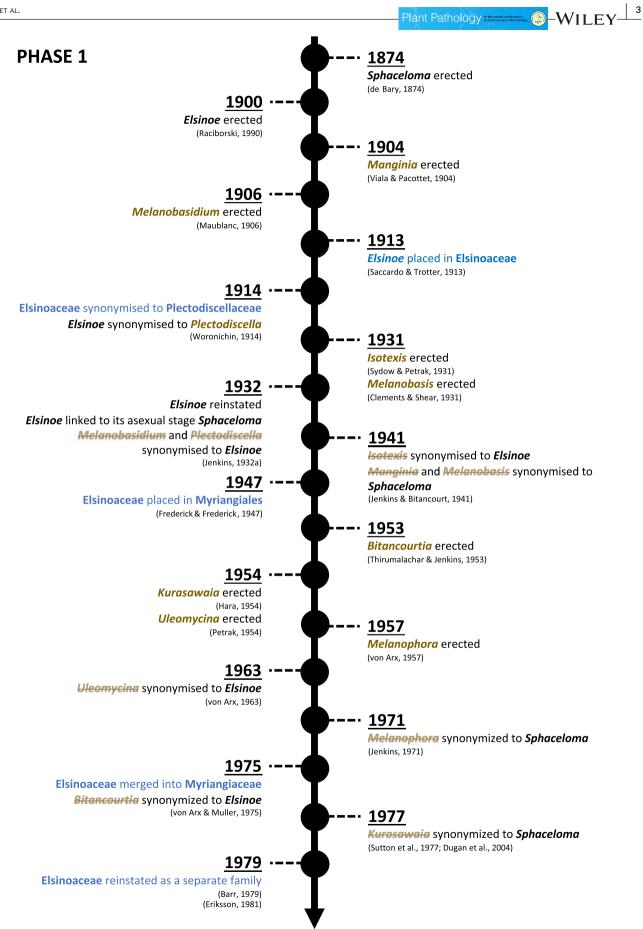
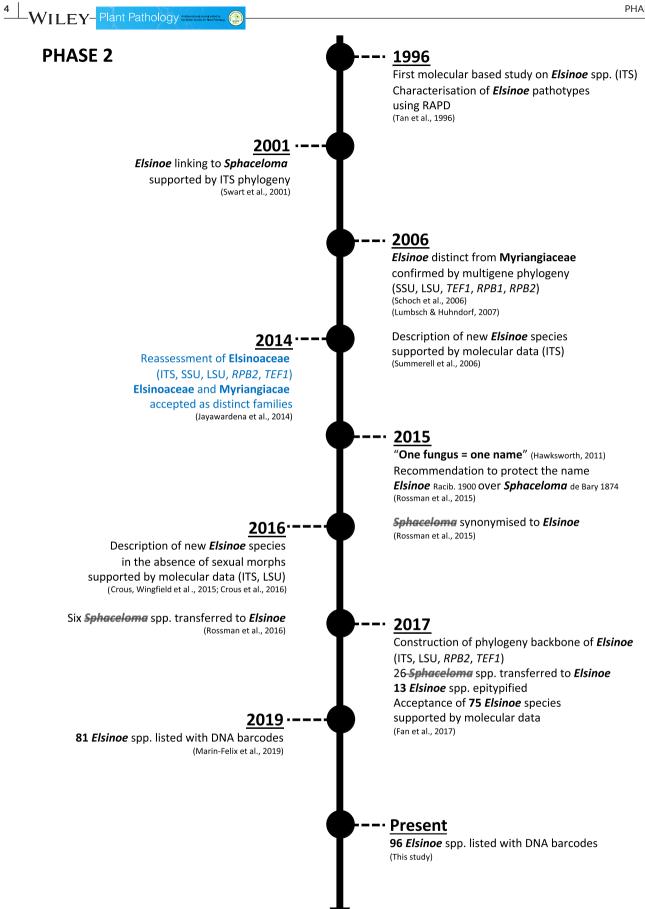


FIGURE 1 Historical timeline outlining important events in the taxonomy of Elsinoe species and their Sphaceloma asexual states.



concept (Hawksworth, 2011), a single name for polymorphic genera has generally followed the rule of assigning either the oldest name, or the most commonly used name accompanied by the largest number of species epithets (Hawksworth, 2011; Rossman et al., 2015, 2016; Taylor, 2011). Consequently, all designations for a given taxon now possess equal standing in terms of priority, irrespective of the morph that they represent (Hawksworth, 2011). In the specific case of Elsinoe, the more recent sexual name Elsinoe Racib. (1900) was chosen for conservation over the older asexual name, Sphaceloma de Bary (1874) (Rossman et al., 2015; Wijayawardene et al., 2012).

Fan et al. (2017) reconstructed the most complete phylogenetic backbone for Elsinoe, which included sequence data from the ITS, 28S large subunit of rRNA (LSU), DNA-directed RNA polymerase II second largest subunit (RPB2) and the translation elongation factor $1-\alpha$ (TEF1) regions. The study considered 119 isolates (64 ex-type strains), representing 67 host genera from 17 countries and resolved the taxonomic status of 75 Elsinoe species, including 26 new combinations that were originally described in Sphaceloma. A combination of a morphological species concept and multigene phylogenetic analyses using informative DNA barcodes provided the most robust view of species boundaries in Elsinoe (Fan et al., 2017).

In the recent past, several new species of Elsinoe have been described and others have been verified with a new epitype designation (Crous et al., 2018, 2022; Crous, Carnegie, et al., 2019; Crous, Wingfield, et al., 2019; Marin-Felix et al., 2019; Pham et al., 2021; Roux et al., 2024; Ujat et al., 2023). A combination of these new data with those available from Fan et al. (2017) is presented in Figure 2, which provides an updated phylogenetic backbone for all Elsinoe species currently known in culture. To date, at least 96 Elsinoe species have been validated based on DNA sequence data, residing in three major phylogenetic clades (Figure 2; Table S1).

IMPORTANCE OF ELSINOE SPECIES 3

Elsinoe species cause diseases on a wide range of plants including agricultural crops, fruit and plantation trees, ornamental and nursery plants, and those occurring in natural ecosystems (Figure 3) (Fan et al., 2017; Marin-Felix et al., 2019). Species of Elsinoe can be found on a wide diversity of angiosperms, including members of at least 47 different plant families (Table S1). Upon closer inspection, the number of plant host families reaches approximately 77 if all Elsinoe and Sphaceloma epithets listed on Index Fungorum (www.indexfungo rum.org) are considered (Farr et al., 2021). There are no records of Elsinoe infecting gymnosperms.

Elsinoe spp. are generally believed to have narrow host ranges or even be host specific, with single species occurring on one host genus or species. However, some Elsinoe species share the same host genus or species, for example, E. genipae and E. genipae-americanae on Genipa americana (Fan et al., 2017); E. australis, E. fawcetii and E. citricola on Citrus spp. (Fan et al., 2017); and E. murrayae and E. salicina on Salix sp. (Fan et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2018), to name only a few. In contrast, some Elsinoe species have been reported

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on plants in multiple distantly related host families: E. ampelina on Vitaceae and Paulowniaceae (Li et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2022); E. anacardii on Anacardiaceae, Annonaceae and Rosaceae (Fan et al., 2017); E. annonae on Annonaceae and Theaceae (Bao et al., 2023; Fan et al., 2017); E. australis on Rutaceae, Simmondsiaceae and Salicaceae (Chung, 2011; Miles et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2020); and E. violae on Violaceae and Caprifoliaceae (Fan et al., 2017).

Species of Elsinoe can infect different parts of their host plants (leaves, shoots, petioles, young stems, flowers and fruits; Figure 3) (Alleyne, 2017; Chung, 2011; Fan et al., 2017; Li et al., 2021; Swart & Crous, 2001). Infections result in unmarketable appearance of the harvested crops, retarded growth of the infected plants, and substantial reductions in yield (Alleyne, 2017; Fan et al., 2017; Swart et al., 2001). Scab symptoms can vary depending on the host, tissue affected, and on the species of Elsinoe. However, in most cases, only young tissues are susceptible to infection. Initial symptoms are often small necrotic spots, which enlarge over time, becoming scab- or pustule-like as the lesions age. On some hosts, other symptoms can occur, including exaggerated internode elongation in cassava, also known as 'super-elongation disease' (SED) (Álvarez & Molina, 2000), stem elongation in poinsettia (Daughtrey & Chase, 2016) and shoot malformation or 'feathering' in planted Eucalyptus (Pham et al., 2021; Roux et al., 2024).

Since their first description in the 19th century, Elsinoe species have emerged as some of the most important fungal plant pathogens globally. In the following section, examples of various scab diseases that cause substantial economic damage on important agricultural, ornamental and forestry crops are broadly discussed.

3.1 **Agricultural hosts**

3.1.1 Scab diseases of fruit crops

Citrus scab is one of the most important and widespread diseases affecting the industry worldwide as it can cause severe losses in fruit destined for the fresh market. In addition, these fungi can cause stunting of plants and significantly lower the yields. Citrus scab is caused by three species of Elsinoe, namely, E. fawcettii, E. australis and E. citricola (Bitancourt & Jenkins, 1936a, 1936b; Chung, 2011; Fan et al., 2017; Timmer et al., 1996). E. australis occurs in the United States and some countries of South America, East Asia and Australia (Figure S1a). E. citricola represents a cryptic species discovered on Citrus lemon, originally identified as an isolate of 'Sphaceloma fawcettii' but later reclassified as a separate species (Fan et al., 2017). E. citricola was described based on specimens from Brazil and no further information on the geographical distribution of this species is available (Fan et al., 2017). E. fawcettii, with a worldwide distribution, is the most common of the citrus scab pathogens, but E. australis can be more economically significant because it infects Citrus species that are more widely grown. Different pathotypes of E. fawcettii and E. australis can affect different Citrus species or varieties (Hyun et al., 2009; Tan et al., 1996). However, not all pathotypes occur in all

ITS+LSU+RPB2+TEF1	79 Elsinoe poinsettiae CBS 109333		Elsinoe poinsettiae Euphorbia pulcherrima (Euphorbiaceae) Guatemala
	82 Elsinoe krugii CPC 18531		Elsinoe krugii Euphorbia heterophylla (Euphorbiaceae) Brazil
	99L Elsinoe bidentis CBS 512.50		Elsinoe bidentis Bidens pilosa (Asteraceae) Brazil
	Elsinoe abutilonis CBS 510.50	•	Elsinoe abutilonis Callianthe striata (Malvaceae) Brazil Elsinoe arachidis Arachis hypogaea (Fabaceae) Brazil
	Elsinoe coryli CBS 275.76		Elsinoe coryli Corylus avellana (Betulaceae) France
	Elsinoe banksiicola CBS 113734		Elsinoe banksiicola Banksia prionote (Proteaceae) Australia
	Elsinoe brasiliensis CPC 18528		Elsinoe brasiliensis Chamaesyce hyssopifolia (Euphorbiaceae) Brazil Elsinoe solidaginis Solidago fistulosa (Asteraceae) USA
	* Elsinoe sesseae CPC 18549		Elsinoe sesseae Cestrum laevigatum (Solanaceae) Brazil
	83 Elsinoe asclepiadea CPC 18544		Elsinoe asclepiadea Asclepias mellodora (Asclepiadaceae) Brazil
	100 Elsinoe genipae CBS 342.39		Elsinoe genipae Genipa americana (Rubiaceae) Brazil
	* Log Elsinoe mimosae CPC 19478		Elsinoe mimosae Mimosa invisa (Fabaceae) Brazil Elsinoe lippiae Phyla lanceolata (Verbenaceae) USA
	96- Elsinoe arrudai CBS 220.50		Elsinoe arrudai Tournefortia breviflora (Boraginaceae) Brazil
	Elsinoe euphorbiae CBS 401.63		Elsinoe euphorbiae Euphorbia parviflora (Euphorbiaceae) India
	Elsinoe ampelina CBS 208.25		Elsinoe ampelina Vitis vinifera (Vitaceae) Brazil
	100 Elsinoe tanashiensis MUCC 3466 64 Elsinoe tsujii MUCC 2991		Elsinoe tanashiensis Populus sp.(Salicaceae) Japan Elsinoe tsujii Paulownia tomentosa (Paulowniaceae) Japan
	Elsinoe hydrangeae MUCC 2988		Elsinoe hydrangeae Hydrangea serrata (Hydrangeaceae) Japan
	96 Elsinoe sumire MUCC 2992		Elsinoe sumire Viola sp. (Violaceae) Japan
	^{1/6} Elsinoe araliae MUCC 2997		Elsinoe araliae Aralia elata (Araliaceae) Japan
			Elsinoe rhois Toxicodendron vernix (Anacardiaceae) Brazil
	91 Elsinoe akebiae MUCC 2982		Elsinoe menthae Mentha piperita (Lamiaceae) USA Elsinoe akebiae Akebia trifoliata (Lardizabalaceae) Japan
	Elsinoe glycines CBS 389.64		Elsinoe glycines Glycine soja (Fabaceae) Japan
	99 Elsinoe batatas SPEb-2 99 Elsinoe ricini CBS 403.63	•	Elsinoe batatas Ipomoea batatas (Convolvulaceae) China
			Elsinoe ricini Ricinus communis (Euphorbiaceae) India Elsinoe leucospermi Leucospermum sp. (Proteaceae) South Africa
	Elsinoe phaseoli CBS 165 31		Elsinoe phaseoli Phaseolus lunatus (Fabaceae) Cuba
	60 Elsinoe protearum CBS 113618		Elsinoe protearum Protea sp. (Proteaceae) Zimbabwe
91			Elsinoe proteae Protea cynaroides (Proteaceae) South Africa
	Elsinoe ledi CBS 167.33 Elsinoe banksiae STE-U 2678		Elsinoe ledi Rhododendron neoglandulosum (Ericaceae) USA Elsinoe banksiae Banksia serrata (Proteaceae) Australia
	Elsinoe barleriicola CBS 471.62		Elsinoe barleriicola Barleria gibsonii (Acanthaceae) India
	100 [Elsinoe pongamiae CBS 402.63		Elsinoe pongamiae Pongamia pinnata (Fabaceae) India
	100 ¹ Elsinoe embeliae CBS 472.62		Elsinoe embeliae Embelia ribes (Primulaceae) India
63	Elsinoe jasminicola CBS 212.63		Elsinoe jasminicola Jasminum malabaricum (Oleaceae) India Elsinoe preissianae Eucalyptus preissiana (Myrtaceae) Australia
	100 Elsinoe piperitae CBS 144615		Elsinoe piperitae Eucalyptus piperita (Myrtaceae) Australia
	100 Elsinoe theae CBS 228.50		Elsinoe theae Camellia sinensis (Theaceae) Brazil
	Elsinoe lepagei CBS 225.50		Elsinoe lepagei Manilkara zapota (Sapotaceae) N/A
	99 100 Elsinoe salignae CBS 145552 Elsinoe leucopogonis CPC 32097		Elsinoe salignae Eucalyptus saligna (Myrtaceae) Australia Elsinoe leucopogonis Leucopogon sp. (Ericaceae) Australia
	89 Elsinoe leucospila T1		Elsinoe leucospila Camellia sinensis (Theaceae) China
91	100 Elsinoe hederae CBS 517.50		Elsinoe hederae Hedera helix (Araliaceae) Brazil
1	00 Elsinoe lagoa-santensis CBS 518.50		Elsinoe lagoa-santensis Byrsonima coccolobifolia (Malpighiaceae) Brazil
99	Elsinoe terminaliae CBS 343.39 Elsinoe mangiferae CBS 226.50		Elsinoe terminaliae Terminalia catappa (Combretaceae) Brazil Elsinoe mangiferae Mangifera foetida (Anacardiaceae) Cuba
	Elsinoe perseae CBS 406.34		Elsinoe perseae Persea americana (Lauraceae) USA
	100 Elsinoe masingae CMW 58888		Elsinoe masingae Eucalyptus grandis × nitens (Myrtaceae) South Africa
	³³ Elsinoe necatrix CMW 56134		Elsinoe necatrix Eucalyptus sp. (Myrtaceae) Indonesia Elsinoe eucalypticola Eucalyptus sp. (Myrtaceae) Australia
75 9	Elsinoe eucalypticola CBS 124765		Elsinoe eelemani Melaleuca alternifolia (Myrtaceae) Australia
	83] Elsinoe jasminae CBS 224.50		Elsinoe jasminae Jasminum sambac (Oleaceae) Brazil
	100 Elsinoe fici CBS 515.50		Elsinoe fici Ficus luschnathiana (Moraceae) Brazil
73 ,	Elsinoe centrolobii CBS 222.50		Elsinoe centrolobii Centrolobium robustum (Fabaceae) Brazil Elsinoe randii Carya sp. (Juglandaceae) Brazil
	Elsinge ichnocarni CBS 475.62		Elsinoe ichnocarpi Ichnocarpus frutescens (Apocynaceae) India
	Elsinoe verbenae CPC 18561	Ц	Elsinoe verbenae Verbena bonariensis (Verbenaceae) Brazil
79 *	Elsinoe tectificae CBS 124777	äl	Elsinoe tectificae Eucalyptus tectifera (Myrtaceae) Australia
	99 [—] Elsinoe fici-caricae CBS 473.62 100 ¹ Elsinoe flacourtiae CBS 474.62	CLAD	Elsinoe fici-caricae Ficus carica (Moraceae) India Elsinoe flacourtiae Flacourtia sepiaria (Salicaceae) India
*	Elsinoe ziziphi CBS 378.62	5	Elsinoe zizyphi Ziziphus rugosa (Rhamnaceae) India
	Elsinoe erythrinae CPC 18542		Elsinoe erythrinae Erythrina sp. (Fabaceae) Brazil
	Elsinoe pitangae CBS 227.50		Elsinoe pitangae Eugenia pitanga (Myrtaceae) Brazil Elsinoe fagarae Fagara riedelianum (Rutaceae) Brazil
6	Elsinoe fagarae CBS 514.50		Elsinoe fawcettii Citrus sp. (Rutaceae) USA
	Elsinoe annonae CBS 228.64		Elsinoe annonae Annona sp. (Annonaceae) USA
6	EISINDE CILICOIA CEC 18555		Elsinoe citricola Citrus limonia (Rutaceae) Brazil
10	Elsinoe tiliae CBS 350.73		Elsinoe tiliae Tilia cordata (Malvaceae) New Zealand
10	Elsinoe unae CBS 350.73 Elsinoe corni CBS 148184 Zelsinoe parthenocissi CBS 146969		Elsinoe corni Cornus florida (Cornaceae) USA Elsinoe parthenocissi Parthenocissus quinquefolia (Vitaceae) New Zealand
	72 <i>Elsinoe populi</i> CBS 289.64		Elsinoe populi Populus deltoides subsp. deltoides (Salicaceae) Argentina
	100 Elsinoe diospyri CBS 223.50		Elsinoe diospyri Diospyros kaki (Ebenaceae) Brazil
	^{60 ∟} Elsinoe caleae CBS 221.50		Elsinoe caleae Calea pinnatifida (Asteraceae) Brazil
	Elsinoe quercus-ilicis CBS 232.61 Elsinoe murrayae NL1		Elsinoe quercus-ilicis Quercus ilex (Fabaceae) Italy Elsinoe murrayae Salix babylonica (Salicaceae) China
	Elsinoe eucalyptorum CBS 120084		Elsinoe eucalyptorum Eucalyptus propingua (Myrtaceae) Australia
	87 Elsinoe freyliniae CBS 128204		Elsinoe freyliniae Freylinia lanceolata (Scrophulariaceae) South Africa
1	00 Elsinoe oleae CBS 227.59		Elsinoe oleae Olea europaea (Oleaceae) Italy
60	73 Elsinoe salicina CPC 17824 Flsinoe picconiae CBS 145026		Elsinoe picconiae Picconia excelsa (Oleaceae) Spain Elsinoe salicina Salix sp. (Salicaceae) USA
	93 [Elsinoe piri CBS 163.29		Elsinoe piri Pyrus communis (Rosaceae) N/A
97	90 Elsinoe sicula CBS 398.59	m	Elsinoe sicula Prunus amygdalus (Rosaceae) Italy
9/	100 Elsinoe maturoloanum CBS 267.64	ш	Elsinoe mattiroloanum Arbutus unedo (Ericaceae) Argentina
	Elsinoe veneta CBS 164.29 Elsinoe rosarum CBS 212.33	CLADE	Elsinoe veneta Rubus sp. (Rosaceae) N/A Elsinoe rosarum Rosa sp. (Rosaceae) USA
		1	Elsinoe violae Viola sp. (Violaceae) USA
9:	94 Elsinoe australis CBS 314.32	0	Elsinoe australis Citrus aurantium (Rutaceae) Brazil
	83 98 Elsinoe genipae-americanae CBS 516.5	50	Elsinoe genipae-americana Genipa americana (Rubiaceae) Brazil
	Elsinoe punicae CPC 19968	15000	Elsinoe punicae Punica granatum (Lythraceae) South Africa
	91 98 Elsinoe veronicae CBS 14	+5362	Elsinoe veronicae Veronica sp. (Plantaginaceae) New Zealand Elsinoe orthonnae Othonna quinquedentata (Asteraceae) South Africa
	91 Elsinoe semecarpi CBS 477.62		Elsinoe semecarpi Melanochyla caesia (Anacardiaceae) India
	100 Elsinoe anacardii CBS 470.62		Elsinoe anacardii Anacardium occidentale (Anacardiaceae) India
	Myriangium hispanicum C	BS 24	7.33

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FIGURE 2 Phylogenetic tree based on maximum-likelihood (ML) analysis of a combined DNA dataset of rDNA internal transcribed spacer (ITS), large subunit (LSU), *RPB2* and *TEF1* sequences for species of *Elsinoe*. Bootstrap values 260% for ML analysis are indicated at the node. Isolates representing ex-type, ex-epitype and ex-isotype are indicated in bold. Host species are highlighted in red, host family in blue, and countries of origin of the isolates are in purple. Blue dots represent species with available genome sequences. *Myriangium hispanicum* (isolate CBS 247.33) represents the outgroup taxon. Table S1 contains detailed methods used to produce this tree as well as GenBank accession numbers.

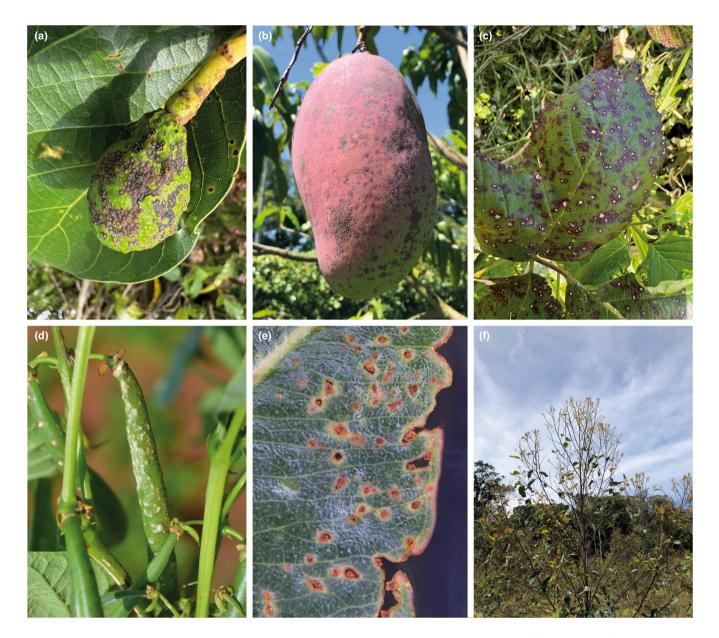


FIGURE 3 Symptoms associated with infections by *Elsinoe* species on various plants. (a) Avocado scab; (b) mango scab; (c) bramble spot anthracnose; (d) bean scab; (e,f) *Eucalyptus* scab and shoot malformation.

areas where these fungi occur (Hyun et al., 2009; Miles et al., 2015). Importantly, *E. australis*, *E. citricola* and *E. fawcettii* are European Union quarantine pests listed in Annex II Part A of Commission Implementing Regulation (EU) 2019/2072 (https://eur-lex.europa. eu/eli/reg_impl/2019/2072/oj).

In the tropics and Southern Hemisphere, mango scab, caused by *E. mangiferae* (Bitancourt & Jenkins, 1946), can be a significant problem on seedlings in nurseries because young host tissues are most susceptible to infection (Conde et al., 2007; Ploetz & Prakash, 1997; Prakash, 2004; Ruehle & Ledin, 1955). The disease was first observed in Cuba, Chile and the United States (Florida) in the 1940s (Bitancourt & Jenkins, 1946). Currently, it is found in most mango-growing regions of the world, including Central and South America, the Pacific, Australia, South and South-east

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Asia, and Africa (Figure S1a). Avocado scab caused by E. perseae was first reported on leaves and fruit of avocado in the United States (Florida) (Jenkins, 1934; Stevens, 1918). Even though there are multiple informal accounts of its presence in many avocadogrowing areas in the Americas and the Caribbean, this disease has only been confirmed in the United States (with restricted distribution in Florida), Brazil and Mexico (Figure S1a). Scab infection results in severe losses from fruit drop, and superficial cosmetic defects that reduce fruit value and export opportunities (Belizaire et al., 2024; Manicom, 2001; Marais, 2004; Pernezny & Marlatt, 2007; Pohronezny & Simone, 1998).

In temperate regions, spot anthracnose of raspberries, blackberries and other brambles or cane fruits (Rubus spp.) is caused by E. veneta (Jenkins, 1932a). E. veneta, originally reported in the United States (Burkholder, 1917), is widespread in all cane fruit-growing regions, especially in North and South America, western Europe, southern Africa, East Asia and Australia (Figure S1a). Cane fruit spot anthracnose was regarded as one of the most aggressive diseases of raspberry and blackberry in North America early in the 20th century (Jones, 1924). The infected fruits are severely disfigured and unmarketable (Burkholder, 1917; Harris, 1931, 1933; Jones, 1924; Labruyère, 1957). Wild Rubus spp. growing in the proximity of the cane fruit fields can also become infected and act as inoculum reservoirs (Jones, 1924). In organic orchards located in cooler temperate areas where fungicides are not sprayed, spot anthracnose in apples and pears caused by E. piri (Jenkins, 1932a) can be economically important (Glazowska et al., 2013; Scheper et al., 2013). Severely infected fruits lose market value and can thus only be used for juice or by-product production (Scheper et al., 2013).

Grape spot anthracnose or bird's eve spot caused by *E. ampelina* (de Bary, 1874; Shear, 1929) is one of the most important diseases affecting wine and table grapes. The disease was first described in western Europe (de Bary, 1874). E. ampelina is now found wherever grapes are grown (Figure S1a). Although the disease may not directly kill the vines, it can diminish photosynthetic capacity, resulting in reduced carbohydrate reserves. Eventually, as these reserves are depleted, vines can succumb to winter conditions (Brook, 1973; Li et al., 2021). In addition to the direct effects on yield, infections also alter the biochemical components of berries and lower the quality of the fruit (Magarey et al., 1993; Thind et al., 1998, 2004). In some regions, yield losses can reach 50%-100% in susceptible cultivars (Anderson, 1956; Bedi et al., 1969).

3.1.2 Scab diseases of root and tuber crops

Elsinoe species can infect the above-ground parts of root and tuber crops, including leaves, shoots, stems and flowers, but not the belowground parts. However, infection in the phyllosphere results in yield reduction and reduced quality of the roots and tubers. Scab disease of cassava was first described by Bitancourt and Jenkins (1950) in Central America. The causal agent was described as E. brasiliensis (Bitancourt & Jenkins, 1950), and the disease has since become

widespread in the neighbouring regions of Central and South America and the Caribbean (Figure S1b). The disease is unknown in Africa, despite this being one of the main cassava-growing regions. Infection by E. brasiliensis results in reduced root size, and thus tuber quality. In some countries, it can lead to up to 80% crop loss (Álvarez et al., 2012; Álvarez & Molina, 2000; Reeder et al., 2009; Zeigler et al., 1983). The advanced symptoms of this disease are excessive lengthening of the stem internodes, thus the name SED, resulting in thin and frail stems (Zeigler et al., 1980). Diseased plants are much taller than those that are healthy but are weaker; symptoms progress to dieback and extensive defoliation (Zeigler et al., 1983). Cross-inoculation trials demonstrated that Elsinoe spp. isolated from wild Euphorbiaceae can cause infections on cassava (Zeigler & Lozano, 1983). Pathotypes of E. brasiliensis have high levels of genetic variability in some regions (Álvarez et al., 2003; Álvarez & Molina, 2000).

Sweet potato scab was first reported from Taiwan in 1931, and later described from Brazil in the 1940s (Jenkins & Viegas, 1943). Other than Brazil, it is not widespread in tropical regions of America as it is known only in Mexico (McGuire Jr. & Crandall, 1967) and Puerto Rico (Watson, 1971). The disease is more prevalent in Southeast Asia, East Asia and the Pacific (Figure S1B). Severe disease incidence can result in low tuber production (up to 50% yield loss) or plant death (Clark et al., 2009; Divinagracia & Mailum, 1976; Goodbody, 1983; Lenné, 1991). Other susceptible Convolvulaceae species, including multiple wild Ipomoea spp. frequently found growing adjacent to sweet potato fields, can potentially act as an inoculum source (Hanson, 1963; Lenné, 1991).

3.1.3 Scab diseases of leguminous crops

Scab diseases of cultivated legumes are caused by three species of Elsinoe including E. arachidis on peanut (Bitancourt & Jenkins, 1940), E. glycines on soybean (Kurata & Kuribayashi, 1954) and E. phaseoli on common and Lima bean (Bruner & Jenkins, 1933). While E. glycines is confined to East Asian countries, E. arachidis and E. phaseoli are found in America, Asia and Africa (Figure S1c). E. phaseoli appears to be the most widespread of these fungi (Figure S1c). In China, E. arachidis can cause yield losses of up to 50% in susceptible peanut varieties (Fang et al., 2007; Zhou et al., 2014). In some regions of Africa, epidemics caused by E. phaseoli can result in 100% infection and yield losses of 40%-70% (Phillips, 1994; Schwartz, 1991). Very little is known regarding the impact of E. glycines in East Asian countries. Cross-inoculation trials of E. glycines on other leguminous hosts have shown that it is not pathogenic on common and Lima bean (Kurata & Kuribayashi, 1954).

Ornamental plants 3.2

Elsinoe species can infect ornamental plants in field and nursery settings, leading to significant aesthetic damage and reduced market value. Spot anthracnose on roses is most serious on field-cultivated roses, with an increasing incidence in recent years occurring in all regions where roses are grown (Bagsic et al., 2016; Horst & Cloyd, 2007). The disease, caused by E. rosarum (Jenkins, 1932b), is widespread mostly in temperate regions (Figure S1e). Spot anthracnose on roses can lead to reduced vigour, inferior blooms and elevated susceptibility to frost damage (Pscheidt & Rodriguez, 2018). Different pathotypes of the fungus have been identified in Germany (Bagsic et al., 2016).

Poinsettia scab, caused by E. poinsettiae (Jenkins & Ruehle, 1942), can result in serious economic losses in ornamental poinsettia nurseries (Benson et al., 2002; Daughtrey & Chase, 2016; Wehlburg, 1968). E. poinsettiae was originally detected on leaves and branches of poinsettia (Euphorbia pulcherrima var. plenissima) in Florida and Hawaii, United States (Jenkins & Ruehle, 1942; Ruehle, 1941). This scab disease has subsequently been recorded from countries in subtropical and tropical America, southern Africa and the South Pacific (Figure S1e). de Lima Nechet et al. (2014) studied the potential use of E. poinsettiae as a mycoherbicide to control wild poinsettia (Euphorbia heterophylla) in Brazil. However, phylogenetic analysis showed that all isolates infecting E. heterophylla in that study were not E. poinsettiae, but rather the closely related species, E. krugii (Fan et al., 2017). Fan et al. (2017) showed that E. krugii was also a pathogen of E. pulcherrima, hinting at the possibility that scab disease of poinsettia in some Central and South American countries could be caused by a complex of different species.

Several Elsinoe species are associated with scab diseases of cultivated Proteaceae, the more important of which are E. leucospermi, E. proteae and E. protearum (Swart et al., 2001). Scab diseases are present on Proteaceae crops in the United States, Spain. Australia and some African countries including South Africa, Malawi and Zimbabwe (Crous et al., 2004; Swart et al., 2001; Figure S1e). E. leucospermi is the most widespread (United States, Spain, Australia and African countries), while E. protearum is present only in South Africa and Zimbabwe (Figure S1e). In some common commercially planted cultivars of Protea, Leucospermum and Leucodendron, the disease can cause significant damage and economic losses (Swart & Crous, 2001), often up to 40%-80% loss in total revenue (Ziehrl et al., 1995). The scab-like lesions reduce the aesthetics of the cut flowers, thus affecting their market value (Swart & Crous, 2001). Severely infected plants may die in the absence of adequate disease control measures (Benić & Knox-Davies, 1983; Ziehrl et al., 2000). Importantly, Ziehrl et al. (2000) showed the cross-infection potential of Elsinoe spp. from South African Proteaceae onto those native to Australia, including species of Banksia and Dryandra.

3.3 Plantation-grown forestry crops

Until very recently, scab diseases caused by Elsinoe spp. were not known to affect trees grown for plantation forestry. This situation changed in the early 2010s when a seriously damaging leaf and

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shoot disease of unknown aetiology was discovered in Eucalyptus plantations of North Sumatra, Indonesia. The symptoms were unlike any other leaf or shoot diseases known on these trees elsewhere in the world. After a decade of intensive research, the causal agent was identified and described as the novel species, E. necatrix (Pham et al., 2021). Interestingly, after this discovery, a similar Eucalyptus disease caused by a different Elsinoe species was encountered in South Africa for the first time (Roux et al., 2024).

Currently, Eucalyptus scab and shoot malformation caused by E. necatrix is known only in North Sumatra, and E. masingae only in South Africa (Figure S1e). In North Sumatra, E. necatrix has emerged as an aggressive pathogen infecting approximately 40,000ha of planted Eucalyptus (Pham et al., 2021). In South Africa, the disease is widespread and has already resulted in a significant negative impact to the local forestry industry (Roux et al., 2024).

Six other species of Elsinoe, namely, E. eucalypticola, E. eucalyptorum, E. piperitae, E. preissianae, E. salignae and E. tectificae, have been described from Eucalyptus species, all from Australia, the native range of Eucalyptus spp. (Crous et al., 2016; Crous, Carnegie, et al., 2019; Crous, Wingfield, et al., 2019; Fan et al., 2017). None of these species have been experimentally tested for pathogenicity and only E. necatrix and E. masingae are known to cause serious disease problems in plantation forestry settings using non-native Eucalyptus. It is believed that Eucalyptus scab caused by Elsinoe spp. could be an important constraint to plantation-grown Eucalyptus in the future (Pham et al., 2021, 2024; Roux et al., 2024).

REPRODUCTIVE BIOLOGY AND 4 INFECTION CYCLE

4.1 Reproductive biology

The studies by Zhao et al. (2020) and Pham et al. (2023) have shown that species of *Elsinoe* have a typical heterothallic mating system. This is characterized by the presence of a single mating-type idiomorph (either MAT1-1 or MAT1-2) in individual isolates and the need for two compatible partners with opposite mating-type idiomorphs for sexual reproduction (Ni et al., 2011; Turgeon & Yoder, 2000). Based on comparisons of genome sequences, MAT1-1 and MAT1-2 idiomorphs in Elsinoe were defined by the MAT1-1-1 or the MAT1-2-1 gene, respectively (Figure S2; Pham et al., 2023). The availability of a set of universal mating-type primers developed for Elsinoe spp., targeting the MAT1-1-1 and MAT1-2-1 genes (Pham et al., 2023), has made it possible to characterize the mating type distribution in natural populations of these important fungi. Such knowledge will facilitate an understanding of the mode of reproduction occurring in particular regions, and consequently an understanding of the population dynamics and adaptation potential of these pathogens (Debuchy & Turgeon, 2006; Ni et al., 2011). This PCR-based mating type diagnostic assay is effective on more than 20 species of Elsinoe, including some of the most important pathogens in the genus (Pham et al., 2023).

4.2 | Putative infection cycle

Most *Elsinoe* species are known based on their asexual states but in some cases the sexual states have been found (Fan et al., 2017). Under favourable environmental conditions (wet and rainy periods), abundant conidia are readily produced asexually on wet scab lesions on leaves, petioles, fruits or plant debris (Brook, 1973; Chung, 2011; Kearney et al., 2002; Whiteside, 1975). Because conidia are dispersed by rain splash, heavy dew or overhead irrigation over short distances (Brook, 1973; Whiteside, 1975), they are mainly responsible for localized vertical spread of the pathogen (Brook, 1973; Chung, 2011; Kearney et al., 2002; Whiteside, 1975). Some species produce spindle-shaped conidia, which facilitates longer distance dispersal by rain splash or by wind (Benson et al., 2002; Chung, 2011; Whiteside, 1975; Zeigler & Lozano, 1983).

The sexual state of *Elsinoe* species, characterized by multiloculate ascostromata, is usually found on older tissues infected in the previous season, or on leaf litter and plant debris (Gabel & Tiffany, 1987; Jones, 1924). Wind-dispersed ascospores are released from asci within eroded ascostromata and can initiate new infections (Gabel & Tiffany, 1987; Jones, 1924). Depending on the species of *Elsinoe*, both conidia and ascospores can be the primary source of inoculum during new growing seasons (Anderson, 1956; Brook, 1973; Gabel & Tiffany, 1987; Jones, 1924).

Elsinoe spp. are polycyclic and thus capable of several infection cycles in a single season (Figure 4). Once the disease is established, the pathogen produces lesions on which acervuli form and produce conidia. These are dispersed by water splash and serve as a second-ary source of inoculum for the remainder of the growing season, assuming that susceptible young tissues are available for infection (Brook, 1973; Gabel & Tiffany, 1987; Kearney et al., 2002). During periods of humid weather, conidia can be released throughout the entire rainy season, providing continuous infections. *Elsinoe* species overwinter as ascostromata or sclerotia on infected tissues or plant debris, some with a survival period of up to 5 years (Brook, 1972; Suhag & Grover, 1972).

5 | PHYTOTOXIN AND PHYTOHORMONE PRODUCTION

Specialized metabolites produced by plant-pathogenic fungi can act as important virulence factors during the infection of plant tissues (Möbius & Hertweck, 2009). *Elsinoe* species produce a group of nonhost-selective specialized metabolites that are light-activated, polyketide-derived phytotoxins known as elsinochromes (Chung & Liao, 2008; Jiao et al., 2021; Liao & Chung, 2008). Production of elsinochromes in these fungi results in the characteristic red

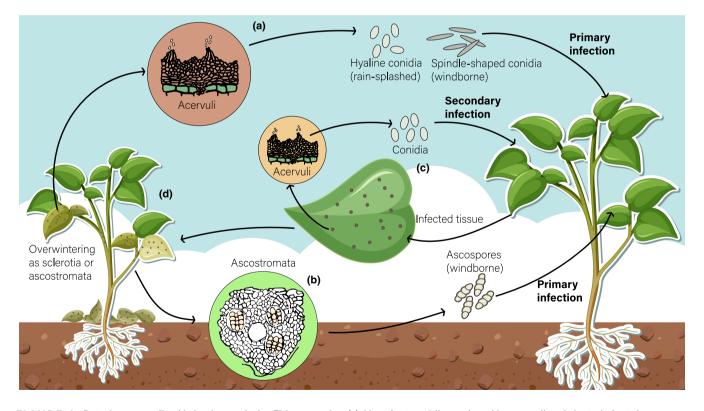


FIGURE 4 Putative generalized infection cycle for *Elsinoe* species. (a) Abundant conidia produced in acervuli on infected plant tissues in previous season (or infection cycle), (b) or ascospores released from ascostromata, can act as primary inoculum and infect young host tissues. (c) Acervuli develop on the newly formed lesions, disseminate conidia that become the source of secondary inoculum, providing continuous infections for the remainder of the growing season. (d) The fungus overwinters by forming either sclerotia or ascostromata on infected materials or plant debris. A sexual state is not known and may not occur in all *Elsinoe* species, in the absence of which infections would depend only on asexual reproduction of the pathogen.

(elsinochromes A-C) to orange (elsinochrome D) pigments in cultures (Chung, 2011; Weiss et al., 1957). Elsinochromes are structurally related to some perylenequinones produced by other fungi such as species of Cercospora and Cladosporium. They react with oxygen molecules after light activation to produce highly toxic reactive oxygen species (Chung, 2011; Daub et al., 2005). This chemical reaction results in necrosis of host cell membranes at the point of infection and is vital to the infection process in these fungi (Jiao et al., 2021; Liao & Chung, 2008; Wang, Bau, et al., 2009).

Chung and Liao (2008) predicted a biosynthetic gene cluster (BGC) responsible for elsinochrome biosynthesis, with a core gene, EfPKS1, encoding a polypeptide containing all of the functional domains characteristic of a fungal non-reducing polyketide synthase (PKS). Ebert et al. (2019) showed that EfPKS1 and the abovementioned BGC containing that gene were involved in DHN-melanin biosynthesis, which consequently resulted in some confusion in subsequent studies (So et al., 2015). Using a genomic mining and comparison method, Ebert et al. (2019) identified the emended elsinochrome BGC, containing the core gene EfETB1. This perylenequione gene was proven legitimate in a gene knockout study, which confirmed its role in toxin production (Ebert et al., 2019).

Gibberellins (GAs) are tetracyclic diterpenoid phytohormones that were first identified as one of the specialized metabolites of the rice-pathogenic fungus Fusarium fujikuroi (MacMillan & Suter, 1958). Surprisingly, they were also found in *E. brasiliensis*, the causal agent of SED in cassava (Rademacher & Graebe, 1979). F. fujikuroi causes infected plants to develop abnormally, resulting in hyperelongated internodes, yellowish leaves and sterile or empty grains, all of which significantly reduce grain production (Leslie & Summerell, 2006). The ability to cause a similar abnormal increase in longitudinal growth of infected plants led to the discovery of these phytohormones in E. brasiliensis (Rademacher & Graebe, 1979; Zeigler et al., 1980). Later, Rademacher (1992) showed that other Elsinoe spp. also produce GA in culture filtrates. The gibberellin BGC from E. brasiliensis has been identified and functionally characterized by Bömke et al. (2008). The similarity in gene structure and organization, and conserved intron positions compared to that of F. fujikuroi gibberellin BGC suggest a common evolutionary origin of these specialized metabolite clusters, despite the distant relatedness of the two organisms (Bömke et al., 2008).

6 DETECTION ASSAYS FOR ELSINOE SPECIES

Scab diseases cannot be identified with confidence using only symptoms. This is because the initial symptoms of infection by Elsinoe spp. can be confused with damage by other pathogens or insect pests (Barreto, 1997; Belizaire et al., 2024; Conde et al., 2007; Everett et al., 2011; Fan et al., 2017; McCoy, 1996). Early detection and diagnostic tools relied on isolating the pathogen from symptomatic plant tissues. Semiselective media containing antibiotics and fungicides were developed (Whiteside, 1986); however, the slow growth of Elsinoe spp. remained a challenge (Fan et al., 2017). Even when a culture is obtained, the lack of diagnostic characters makes isolate identification difficult and unreliable (Fan et al., 2017; Timmer et al., 2000).

The availability of various molecular techniques has prompted the development of several methods to detect Elsinoe spp. in infected plant tissues. For example, Hyun et al. (2007) developed a conventional PCR assay based on a RAPD fragment to distinguish between the citrus pathogens E. fawcettii and E. australis. Everett et al. (2011) designed species-specific primers from the ITS region to detect E. perseae infecting avocado. Similarly, Alleyne et al. (2015) designed specific PCR primers to target a fragment of the Smp450-2 gene, belonging to the gibberellin BGC, to detect E. brasiliensis in cassava plants affected by SED. Ahmed et al. (2019) developed a multiplex real-time (quantitative) PCR protocol, targeting the nuclear single-copy gene MS204, to detect E. fawcettii and E. australis on Citrus. Later, Elliott et al. (2023) introduced an assay targeting the ITS region for the diagnosis of all Elsinoe spp. occurring on Citrus, including E. citricola. Chandelier et al. (2022) developed a quantitative PCR test to detect and quantify E. piri. In terms of point-of-care diagnosis, Shin et al. (2021) developed a recombinase polymerase amplification (RPA)-clustered regularly interspaced short palindromic repeats (CRISPR)/associated (Cas) system with a lateral flow assay (RPA-CRISPR/CAS12a-LFA) to detect E. fawcettii on Citrus. More recently, a rapid and sensitive loop-mediated isothermal amplification (LAMP) assay for E. necatrix was developed by van Heerden et al. (2024) to facilitate the management of disease outbreaks and implementation of guarantine measures for the Eucalyptus plantation forestry.

DISEASE MANAGEMENT 7

Chemical control is commonly used to reduce the impact of Elsinoe infections. Contact fungicides used for this purpose include captafol (Ziehrl et al., 2000), captan (Barros et al., 2015), copperbased (oxychloride, hydroxide, oxide; Daughtrey & Chase, 2016; du Plessis, 1940; Rao, 1983), chlorothalonil (Barros et al., 2015; Daughtrey & Chase, 2016; Lopes et al., 1997; Ramsey et al., 1988), mancozeb (Barros et al., 2015; Daughtrey & Chase, 2016; Ziehrl et al., 2000) and prochloraz (Ziehrl et al., 2000). In the case of systemic fungicides, azoles (imidazole, benzimidazole, tebuconazole, propiconazole, difenoconazole; Barreto, 1997; Daughtrey & Chase, 2016), barbendazim (Reddy et al., 1983), benomyl (Daughtrey & Chase, 2016; Floyd, 1988; Ramsey et al., 1988), boscalid (Daughtrey & Chase, 2016), strobilurins (azoxystrobin, pyraclostrobin; Daughtrey & Chase, 2016) and thiophanate-methyl (Barros et al., 2015) have been effective for the control of scab diseases. Their efficacy relies on spraying young active growth or fruits when conditions are favourable for infection. However, persistent use of chemicals sharing the same mode of action can induce a selective pressure on these pathogens, leading to chemical resistance (Brent & Hollomon, 2007). For example, strains resistant to benomyl have been reported in E. fawcettii (Whiteside, 1980) and E. batatas

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(Lenné, 1991), and methyl benzimidazole carbamate (MBC) resistance has been observed in *E. veneta* (Munro et al., 1988).

Efficient and accurate fungicide applications can be streamlined by establishing data-driven forecasting approaches. These can also improve disease management while moderating negative environmental effects, reducing costs and reducing the risk of fungicide resistance. In this regard, models to estimate the amount of primary inoculum in the field (Carisse & Lefebvre, 2011), to predict environmental conditions triggering the development of epidemics (Carisse et al., 2020) or to forecast infection occurrence throughout the whole growing season (Ji et al., 2021), have been applied to develop scab disease management schemes for *E. ampelina*.

A small number of infected plants amongst newly established planting stock can be sufficient to result in the rapid spread of Elsinoe spp., and once established, the disease becomes difficult to manage (Jones, 1924; Kearney et al., 2002). Therefore, cultural practices can be useful to reduce the impact of diseases caused by Elsinoe spp. These include sanitary methods such as removal of primary sources of inoculum including infected plants, or plant residues from previous season's infections, before planting (Jones, 1924; Timmer et al., 2004). Because scab symptoms are visible on young growth, it is possible to select disease-free plants before establishment (Li et al., 2021; Swart & Crous, 2001). Biennial cropping can also reduce the inoculum levels (Waister et al., 1977; Wright & Waister, 1982). Planting locations that favour the retention of moisture on plants, or overuse of overhead irrigation should be avoided. Sanitation pruning of infected materials, as well as weeding, should be conducted frequently because this facilitates optimal airflow around and between plants (Chung, 2011; Jones, 1924; Summerell, 2018; Swart & Crous. 2001).

Many crops such as cassava, sweet potato and legumes sustain the livelihoods of mainly low-income farmers in developing economy countries. In these situations, deployment of disease tolerant or resistant varieties is considered one of the main solutions to control scab diseases. This is also true for commercial forestry plantations, which are usually established over large areas and where chemical applications, or removal of diseased trees, is not feasible.

Selection for resistance to Elsinoe infections has been successfully used to reduce the impact of the disease on many crops. For instance, tolerant grape genotypes have been identified in greenhouse trials (Hopkins & Harris, 2000; Poolsawat et al., 2012) and using field screening (Goyal et al., 1971; Prasad & Nirvan, 1965; Suhag et al., 1982). Phillips (1995) evaluated some cultivars of common bean in the greenhouse and field for resistance to E. phaseoli. There were considerable differences in the susceptibility of the tested bean cultivars, ranging from very susceptible to apparently immune (Phillips, 1995). In a period of over 10 years, 6400 genotypes of cassava were screened in Colombia and resistance to SED was found in 4% (Álvarez et al., 2012). In regions with widespread and severe scab disease, sweet potato breeding lines and genetic materials are routinely examined in the field and under glasshouse conditions (Mariscal & Carpena, 1988; Ramsey et al., 1988; Smit et al., 1991). In the United States, an evaluation of over 100 cultivars of poinsettia

showed that all cultivars tested were susceptible to *E. poinsettiae* (Daughtrey & Chase, 2016). In the case of plantation-grown trees, field observations have shown that *Eucalyptus* genotypes differ in their susceptibility to infection by *E. necatrix* and *E. masingae*, with some genotypes showing evidence of tolerance (Pham et al., 2021; Roux et al., 2024).

8 | DRIVERS OF SCAB DISEASE EMERGENCE

Major drivers of infectious plant disease emergence have been intensively reviewed previously (Anderson et al., 2004; Corredor-Moreno & Saunders, 2020; Ghelardini et al., 2016; Ramsfield et al., 2016; Richardson et al., 2016; Stukenbrock & McDonald, 2008; Wingfield et al., 2015). These determinants can include anthropogenic introduction of alien plant pathogens, changes in climatic conditions as a result of climate change, changes in genetics of the pathogens by means of recombination, hybridization or mutation, host shifts or expansion of host range, or influence of cropping systems and practices. For diseases caused by *Elsinoe* species, there is good evidence for the involvement of some of the above-mentioned drivers. These are discussed in the following sections.

8.1 | Movement of host plants and their pathogens

The movement of plant material around the world, resulting in the accidental introduction of pests and pathogens, is one of the main factors leading to the emergence of new plant disease outbreaks (Anderson et al., 2004; Brasier, 2008; Liebhold et al., 2012; Santini et al., 2018). Such movement is facilitated by anthropogenic activities, also referred to as pathogen pollution, resulting in pathogen introductions into new regions outside their natural geographical boundaries or their natural host range (Anderson et al., 2004; Cunningham et al., 2003). These accidental introductions pose a significant threat to endemic plant species that are especially vulnerable because the host plants have not co-evolved with the pathogens (Cunningham et al., 2003).

E. fawcetii, the causal agent of citrus scab, has a worldwide distribution and provides a good example of global spread linked to anthropogenic activity. Hyun et al. (2009) examined the genetic relationships of a worldwide collection of *E. fawcettii* isolates and found that some regions harboured many pathotypes. They also showed that outcrossing might occur at a relatively high frequency in some groups of pathotypes. This result was surprising because the sexual state of *E. fawcettii* has only been found in Brazil (Bitancourt & Jenkins, 1936a; EFSA et al., 2022). Hyun et al. (2009) suggested that *E. fawcettii* was introduced multiple times in areas including the United States (Florida) and New Zealand (Hyun et al., 2009). Given that *E. fawcettii* is spread mostly by rain splash and that conidia are dispersed very locally (Chung, 2011), it is believed that introduced

scab pathotypes have been distributed globally via infected plant germplasm, that is, rootstocks, grafted plants, scions and fruit (EFSA et al., 2022; Hyun et al., 2009). Efforts should thus focus on reducing the possibility of new pathogen genotypes emerging due to the accidental introduction of new pathotypes having outcrossing potential into new areas.

Introduction of emerging pathogens can also occur naturally, largely via aerial dispersal mechanisms (Aylor, 1990; Mukherjee et al., 2021). Favourable environments at the time of arrival and access to susceptible hosts is essential for successful establishment (Corredor-Moreno & Saunders, 2020). Although windborne ascospores can be involved in the life cycle of some Elsinoe species (Gabel & Tiffany, 1987; Jones, 1924; Minutolo et al., 2016), very little is known regarding the possible distances that these spores can be dispersed. Jones (1924) showed that ascospores of E. veneta carried by wind from diseased plants could infect plants up to 0.8 km away. But it is also relevant to consider that severe weather conditions such as hurricanes could substantially increase long-distance dissemination of these propagules (Stokstad, 2004).

8.2 | Influence of cropping systems and management practices

Modern cropping systems and management practices are typified by high-density monocultures of fast-growing and high-yielding crops. In these situations, fields or plantations are typically planted to a single genotype, or a population of half-sib individuals that have very little genetic diversity (van de Wouw et al., 2010). These genetically uniform landscapes reduce spatial constraints on dispersal and provide easy access to susceptible host material, and thus increase the potential for epidemics to emerge (Corredor-Moreno & Saunders, 2020; Drenth et al., 2019). For example, in North Sumatra, Indonesia, relatively low host genetic diversity and low resistance levels in clonal Eucalyptus plantations has resulted in a rapid buildup of the E. necatrix population, facilitating considerable gene flow across E. necatrix strains (Pham et al., 2024). In addition, unhindered sexual outcrossing could generate considerable genetic variation, and a capacity to rapidly overcome narrow host genetic resistance in a genetically uniform setting (Pham et al., 2024).

8.3 Shifts in an existing host range of pathogens

A pathogen can emerge as a result of adaptation to a new host following a host-range expansion, host shift or host jump (Giraud et al., 2010; Morris & Moury, 2019; Slippers et al., 2005; Stukenbrock & McDonald, 2008). Host shifts, involving a novel host that is closely related to the original host, could occur from wild species to a crop plant, especially when the two are growing in adjacent areas (Stukenbrock & McDonald, 2008). A probable example of host shifts in *Elsinoe* is in the case of sweet potato scab caused by E. batatas. The pathogen is most likely native to South-east Asia and

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the Pacific where it infects wild species of Convolvulaceae. Elsinoe species infecting Ipomoea species, including water spinach (Ipomoea aquatica), often grown near sweet potato fields in much of the range of this disease, could have undergone a host shift to infect sweet potato (Clark et al., 2009). Another example could be the species complex including E. poinsettiae affecting poinsettia, E. krugii affecting wild poinsettia and E. brasiliensis affecting cassava. The disease on domesticated plants could have originated from various native Euphorbiaceae in Central and South America (de Lima Nechet et al., 2004; Fan et al., 2017; Zeigler & Lozano, 1983). These host shift hypotheses need to be addressed using molecular tools.

The current view that most Elsinoe species are host specific should be considered carefully. This is because most sampling of these pathogens has been restricted to populations affecting cultivated crops, leading to an underestimation of the gene pool being sampled. Advances in DNA sequencing technology and the ability to accurately identify organisms to the species level have revealed a much broader host range than has been assumed for some Elsinoe species. For example, species such as E. ampelina, E. anacardia, E. annonae, E. australis and E. violae have been shown to cause infection on alternative hosts residing in different and even distantly related plant families (Bao et al., 2023; Chung, 2011; Fan et al., 2017; Li et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2022; Miles et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2020). More focused sampling strategies will need to be used to estimate pathogen prevalence in the wild and thus to assess the risks of spillover effects (Plowright et al., 2019).

8.4 Climate change

Sudden and substantial changes in climatic conditions associated with climate change can, and in some cases are already resulting in new or more serious plant disease problems (Anderson et al., 2004; Cacciola & Gullino, 2019; Corredor-Moreno & Saunders, 2020; Laine, 2023; Nnadi & Carter, 2021). These can be a consequence of enhanced plant pathogen fitness where altered climatic conditions can contribute to the re-emergence of pre-existing pathogens (Anderson et al., 2004; Harvell et al., 2002; Nnadi & Carter, 2021). In the case of the recently described E. masingae on Eucalyptus in South Africa, the emergence of the disease is probably associated with abnormal climate conditions. These include, amongst others, higher-than-average rainfall, lower levels of evaporation and extended periods of leaf wetness, all of which could be the result of climate change (Roux et al., 2024). Likewise, an increase in frequency of rainfall, higher humidity and temperature during flowering and fruiting of hazelnut in southern Italy, has also catalysed the re-emergence of E. coryli, 30 years after it was first reported in that area (Minutolo et al., 2016).

FUTURE PROSPECTS 9

Scab diseases caused by Elsinoe species are amongst the most serious threats to the world's crops, and they appear to be rising

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in importance. There is little doubt that these fungi will continue to be of significant social, biological and economic importance in the coming years and beyond. As a result of globalization and climate change, scab diseases appear to be on the rise. These fungi have an immense capacity to move and adapt to new ecosystems, as well as to rapidly evolve and overcome existing host resistance, or to colonize naive crops. Despite representing one of the most important groups of plant pathogens, the biology of *Elsinoe* pathogens is surprisingly poorly understood.

The majority of investigations on *Elsinoe* have focused on species identification and geographical distribution. Phylogenies based on DNA sequence inference have substantially improved our understanding of the taxonomy of these fungi. However, knowledge regarding the population biology of *Elsinoe* spp. remains notably scarce, and in many cases is nonexistent. This represents a significant gap in research on *Elsinoe* species and the diseases they cause. A comprehensive understanding of the population dynamics of *Elsinoe* spp. would not only provide an ability to trace the origins and pathways of invasion of these fungi, but also play a pivotal role in developing phytosanitary and quarantine regulations for them. Additionally, a better comprehension of *Elsinoe* population biology holds significance for plant breeding and selection programmes. Incorporating knowledge from population genomics into disease modelling should also improve our ability to predict the evolutionary and adaptation potential of the causal agents. This would augment efforts to develop suitable management strategies against diseases associated with these important pathogens.

Recent advances in next-generation sequencing technology have made it possible to sequence many high-quality reference genomes. From the beginning of the 2020s alone, 27 genomes representing nine *Elsinoe* species have been sequenced (Table 1), and it is reasonable to anticipate that more will become publicly available in the relatively near future. These will allow for the development of tools for population genetic studies and thus to better understand the complex

TABLE 1	Details of all Elsinoe	e species for which gene	omes have been sequenced.
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Species	Strain	Accession number ^a	Genome size (Mb)	Reference
Elsinoe ampelina	YL-1	SMYM0000000	28.30	Li et al. (2020)
	CECT 20119	JAAEIW000000000	28.27	Haridas et al. (2020)
E. annonae	SM-YC-2	GWHBKHL00000000 ^b	25.93	Bao et al. (2023)
E. arachidis	LNFT-H01	JAAPAX000000000	33.18	Jiao et al. (2021)
	LY-HS-1	GWHBFXO00000000 ^b	32.44	Su et al. (2022)
E. australis	Ea-1	SWCS0000000	23.79	Shanmugam et al. (2020)
	NL1	NHZQ0000000	23.34	Zhao et al. (2020)
	BRIP 52616a	WLZB0000000	23.87	Jeffress (2021)
	Wagga_1	QGII0000000	26.28	Jeffress (2021)
	Wagga_2	PTQP0000000	26.60	Jeffress (2021)
	Wagga_3	QGIH0000000	26.29	Jeffress (2021)
	Hillstone_1	QGIJ0000000	24.98	Jeffress (2021)
	Hillstone_2	PTQR0000000	26.63	Jeffress (2021)
	Hillstone_3	QGIG0000000	27.12	Jeffress (2021)
	Forbes_1	PTQO0000000	26.62	Jeffress (2021)
	Forbes_2	PTQQ0000000	26.62	Jeffress (2021)
E. batatas	CRI-CJ2	JAESVG00000000	26.49	Zhang et al. (2022)
E. fawcettii	SM16-1	VAAB00000000	26.65	Shanmugam et al. (2020)
	DAR-70024	SWCR0000000	26.32	Shanmugam et al. (2020)
	BRIP 53147a	SDJM0000000	26.01	Jeffress et al. (2020)
	BRIP 54245a	WLYY0000000	26.48	Jeffress (2021)
	BRIP 54425a	WLYZ0000000	25.86	Jeffress (2021)
	BRIP 54434a	WLZA0000000	25.87	Jeffress (2021)
E. murrayae	CQ-2017a	NKHZ0000000	20.72	Cheng and Zhao (2022)
E. necatrix	CMW 56134	JANZYH00000000	24.07	Wingfield et al. (2022)
	CMW 56129	JANZYI00000000	25.64	Pham et al. (2023)
E. perseae	TREC-ASLL3	JARDAA01000000	23.49	Gañán-Betancur and Gazis (2023)

^aGenBank database accession number, National Centre for Biotechnology Information (NCBI; https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov).

^bGenome warehouse (GWH), National Genomics Data Center (NGDC), part of the China National Center for Bioinformation (CNCB; https://ngdc. cncb.ac.cn).

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biology of these pathogens as well as the drivers of their emergence. The availability of these genomes will also provide opportunities to investigate the genomic basis of host specificity; to characterize BGCs involved in the production of important specialized metabolites; to develop efficient early detection tools; and to have a substantially enhanced understanding of the mechanisms underlying the pathogenicity of these economically important pathogens.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Data sharing is not applicable to this article as no new data were generated.

ORCID

Nam Q. Pham ^(b) https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4938-9067 Brenda D. Wingfield ^(b) https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6189-1519 Irene Barnes ^(b) https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4349-3402 Romina Gazis ^(b) https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7979-176X Michael J. Wingfield ^(b) https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9346-2009

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

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